# RESEARCH PROPOSAL

## MEDIATIONAL EFFECT OF PERMA ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN 14 DYNAMICS OF HEALTHY RELATIONSHIP AND FAMILY PROTECTIVE FACTORS: ACROSS CULTURES

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**Submitted by**

Anjali Singh

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**Under the Supervision of**

Dr. Sudha Rathore
Assistant Professor

Prof. Roopa Mathur
Professor

**Department of Psychology**


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# CHAPTER- I

# INTRODUCTION

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## 1. An Overview of Positive Psychology

### 1.1. Definition

Positive Psychology, is considered to be one of the most recent approaches in psychology, it has been prominent since the late 1990s. However, the term Positive Psychology was first referred by Maslow in 1954 in his studies regarding motivation and personality (Snyder & Lopez, 2009). At the end of the 1990s, Martin E. P. Seligman, in the United States, legitimized the use of this term to denote a theoretical approach proposed for the understanding of the human being.

According to Sheldon and King (2001), Positive Psychology is the scientific study of the ordinary human strengths and virtues. For Seligman (2000), Positive Psychology is the study of feelings, emotions, institutions and positive behaviors that have human happiness as their final goal. For Snyder and Lopez (2009, p. 17), "Positive Psychology is the scientific and applied approach to uncovering people's strengths and promoting their positive functioning". Also according to these authors, the science and practice of Positive Psychology are directed toward the identification and understanding of human qualities and virtues, as well as promoting conditions for people to have happier and more productive lives. From this perspective, the meaning of happiness is not understood as something fleeting and fluctuating but as a relatively permanent feeling experienced over time.

### 1.2.History

Historically, it can be said that the movement known as Positive Psychology was developed from the 1990s by Martin Seligman, then the president of the American Psychological Association (APA), along with other prominent researchers in the international arena, such as Ken Sheldon, Barbara Fredrickson, Kevin Rathunde, Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi, Robert Emmons, Carol Ryff and Jon Haidt, among others. This perspective primarily proposes modifying the focus of psychology, which shifts from attempting to repair the "worst things" in life and the emphasis on studies exclusively devoted to mental illness to building positive qualities (DelleFave, 2006; Snyder & Lopez, 2009). This innovative proposal arises from the observation that psychology, until then, leaned primarily on the development deficits, disorders, psychopathologies and mental illness. This effort to highlight health, as opposed to illness, began to be stressed after the Second World War with veterans who returned from battlefields and needed to be reinserted into society and assisted in their needs. By removing the focus from mental illness, the possibility to highlight the positive aspects, strengths, virtues and potential of the human being was opened, focusing on health prevention and promotion.

Another prominent researcher in the field of Positive Psychology is Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (1997), who developed studies on the flow state, which is considered one of the most pervasive concepts in the area. The concept of flow is defined as a state of optimal experience that people express when they are intensely involved in what they are doing. This state can be represented as a channel on a scheme of challenge *versus* skill, separating the states of boredom and anxiety: as the challenges increase, people become more anxious, and when they decrease, they get bored and find it a dull experience. Thus, the flow state

may manifest when the challenge and ability are high and in balance, which has subsidized the planning of interventions in different professional and educational sectors. The presence of flow depends on the combination of internal and external conditions. In terms of external conditions, we highlight the task characteristics, which should have concrete goals such that people can adjust. Internally, there are the personal characteristics, such as self-control and ability of concentrated attention, which are strongly associated to the flow states (Mesurado, 2009).

Regarding the positivity concept, we highlight the studies by Alice Isen and Barbara Fredrickson. Isen (1987) found that people who experience moderate positive emotions tend to help others more, to be more flexible in their thoughts and to produce solutions for the problems. From these considerations, Barbara Fredrickson (2009) developed a model capable of explaining the social and cognitive effects of positive emotional experiences. According to this author, the experience of joy expands the domain of what a person wants to do at that moment, i.e., there is an expansion of the momentary repertoire of thought-actions. Observing a person who does something important and inspires admiration can also enhance positive emotions and change unfavorable pattern behaviors, as noted in studies by Jon Haidt (2002). Witnessing a heroic act, for example, leads the person to a state of elevation, which raises the manifestation of positive emotions.

Ken Sheldon and his colleagues attempted to explain human happiness from a model that integrates genetic aspects, circumstantial and demographic determinants and the process of intentional change. Although the genetic component is of greater weight, the authors emphasize intentional activity as a possibility of obtaining

pleasure, meaning and good health (Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, &Schkade, 2005), which emphasizes the processes of development as potentiators of the positive experience.

From the contributions of these different authors, aimed at different objectives, it is emphasized that the Positive Psychology proposal is a modification from the emphasis on repairing the worst aspects of life to building positive qualities or virtues (Seligman, 2000; Snyder & Lopez, 2009). Since its inception, Positive Psychology has not been disseminated only in academia because it develops interventions and proposals that also involve non-academics, inviting them to benefit from its practices. An example of this growth is the International Association of Positive Psychology [AIPP], which has over three thousand members distributed in 70 countries, bringing together not only researchers but also professionals of psychology and several other fields, who are interested in the study of well-being.

## 2. PERMA Model

### 2.1. History

Considered to be a recent approach, Positive Psychology is developing rapidly, especially considering that its propagation and discussion in academic circles date back slightly over a decade. In addition to the constant development of this perspective, the possibility of systematizing the already consolidated production in the field is opened to gain knowledge on the gaps and potential for new studies. It is in this direction that the theoretical foundations that underlie Positive Psychology have advanced along this short trajectory. The authentic happiness

movement, formulated in 2002, is currently being questioned, thereby allowing the ascendance of the well-being movement, formulated in 2011. Both movements were developed by Seligman from several empirical studies with the participation of researchers from all over the world. The transition from a movement to another is automatic and exclusionary but must be understood as an ongoing paradigm shift. Thus, understanding this process is critical to align the Positive Psychology goals to those of a psychological science permanently committed to social change and the human well-being.

- First Movement: Authentic Happiness (2002) Seligman's beginning theory discussed authentic happiness. He described that people can feel happiness from different types of experiences-

  - *The pleasant life:* This refers to feeling positive emotions in the most intuitive way, of feeling pleasant sensations. For example, eating ice cream because it tastes good, or riding a roller coaster because it's fun. Gaining happiness at this level necessitates relatively little effort.

  - *The engaged life:* Engagement is characterized by flow. Flow refers to the experience of completely loosing oneself in an activity. Individuals become totally absorbed in what they are doing and lose track of time. They are not thinking, but in essence unified with what they are doing. Individuals could experience this in many activities, such as at work, dancing, playing baseball, or even solving a crossword puzzle.

    In order for flow to occur, the person has to be using their signature character strengths, and usually there has to be some sort of challenge, but

not too big of a challenge. Usually, activities with clear goals and feedback will cause more flow. Flow causes an inner motivation and intrinsic reward. As opposed to the pleasant life, this form of happiness necessitates more effort. Being in flow invigorates the person, filling one with positive energy.

- *The meaningful life:* However engaging flow activities may be, they can be utterly meaningless and fill a person with a void after some time. For example, after being absorbed in a puzzle and finishing it, one can still feel like there life is worthless. In order to feel meaning, people have to be engaged in something that serves a goal beyond themselves, such as in religion, politics, or family.

Seligman (2011) noted that authentic happiness aims to redefine what happiness is in an arbitrary way. As to engagement and meaning, the notions are related to how the human being feel but are not part of what is conceived as happiness. Another criticism refers to the main measure of authentic happiness, which is the level of life satisfaction.

Also according to Seligman (2011), life satisfaction does not consider how much meaning there is or how much people are committed to their work and how much they engage with the people they love. As a possible measurement of mood, life satisfaction is extremely variable and is therefore a situational measurement. Based on these criticisms, Seligman and other researchers began to review the construct of authentic happiness, developing a second movement, known as well-being, which is described next.

- Second Movement: Well-Being (2011): It is with the purpose of initiating a "new Positive Psychology" that Seligman (2011) started his latest book. In that work, he proposes a change in the Positive Psychology goal: in 2004, it sought happiness. Currently, the term that Seligman uses is well-being. This change in nomenclature arose from several questions that emphasized happiness as a complex concept to be operationalized in terms of psychological construct. The term well-being, in contrast, has greater acceptance in scientific circles and summarizes, more appropriately, to what this referential proposes. Although the term well-being is more palatable in comparison with the concept of happiness, its discussion is not less complex, given the existence of different dimensions of well-being, such as psychological, emotional, subjective and social, among other subdivisions (Snyder & Lopez, 2009). The adoption of these terms indicate different positions, comprising not only different factors promoters of well-being but also plural visions about the concept, as discussed in the studies by Ryff and Keyes (1995).

## 2.2. The Model

This second movement has been designed in form of a model, commonly known as the PERMA model by Martin Seligman (2011). This model comprises of five core elements of psychological well-being and happiness. Seligman believes that these five elements can help people reach a life of fulfilment, happiness, and meaning. This model can also be applied to institutions to develop programs to help people develop new cognitive and emotional tools.

- P – Positive Emotion

This element of the model is one of the most obvious connections to happiness. Being able to focus on positive emotions is more than just smiling, it is the ability to be optimistic and view the past, present, and future from a positive perspective.

This positive view of life can help you in relationships, work, and inspire you to be more creative and take more chances. In everyone's life, there are highs and lows, focusing on the lows increase your chances of developing depression, therefore, you should focus on the high and positive aspects of life. There are also many health benefits to optimism and positivity.

Distinguishing between pleasure and enjoyment is important in this element of the model. Pleasure is connected to satisfying bodily needs for survival; such as thirst, hunger, and sleep. Whereas enjoyment comes from intellectual stimulation and creativity, for example when a child completes a complex lego car that requires his concentration, he will be beaming with joy and satisfaction from his work.

This type of positive emotion is needed, as when someone enjoys the tasks in their lives they are more likely to persevere and battle challenges through creative and alternative solutions.

This route to well-being is hedonic – increasing positive emotion. Within limits, we can increase our positive emotion about the past (e.g., by cultivating gratitude and forgiveness), our positive emotion about the present (e.g., by savoring physical pleasures and mindfulness) and our positive emotion about the future (e.g., by building hope and optimism).

Unlike the other routes to well-being described below, this route is limited by how much an individual can experience positive emotions. In other words, positive affectivity is partly heritable and our emotions tend to fluctuate within a range. Many people are, by disposition, low in experiencing positive emotion. Traditional conceptions of happiness tend to focus on positive emotion, so it can be liberating to know that there are other routes to well-being, described below.

- E – Engagement

It is important in our lives to be able to find activities that need our full engagement. Engagement in the activities in our lives is important for us to learn, grow and nurture our personal happiness. Everyone is different and we all find enjoyment in different things whether it's playing an instrument, playing a sport, dancing, working on an interesting project at work or even just a hobby. We all need something in our lives that entirely absorbs us into the present moment, creating a 'flow' of blissful immersion into the task or activity. This type of 'flow' of engagement is important to stretch our intelligence, skills, and emotional capabilities. Engagement is an experience in which someone fully deploys their skills, strengths, and attention for a challenging task. According to Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi, this produces an experience called "flow" that is so gratifying that people are willing to do it for its own sake, rather than for what they will get out of it. The activity is its own reward. Flow is experienced when one's skills are just sufficient for a challenging activity, in the pursuit of a clear goal, with immediate feedback on progress toward the goal. In such an activity, concentration is fully absorbed in the moment, self-awareness disappears, and the

perception of time is distorted in retrospect, e.g., time stops. Flow can be experienced in a wide variety of activities, e.g., a good conversation, a work task, playing a musical instrument, reading a book, writing, building furniture, fixing a bike, gardening, sports training or performance, to name just a few.

- R – Relationships

Relationships and social connections are one of the most important aspects of life. Humans are social animals that thrive on connection, love, intimacy, and a strong emotional and physical interaction with other humans. Building positive relationships with your parents, siblings, peers, and friends are important to spread love and joy. Having strong relationships gives you support in difficult times.

Relationships are fundamental to well-being. The experiences that contribute to well-being are often amplified through our relationships, for example, great joy, meaning, laughter, a feeling of belonging, and pride in accomplishment. Connections to others can give life purpose and meaning. Support from and connection with others is one of the best antidotes to “the downs” of life and a reliable way to feel up. Research shows that doing acts of kindness for others produces an increase in well-being. From an evolutionary perspective, we are social beings because the drive to connect with and serve others promotes our survival. Developing strong relationships is central to adaptation and is enabled by our capacity for love, compassion, kindness, empathy, teamwork, cooperation, self-sacrifice, etc.

- M – Meaning

Having a purpose and meaning to why each of us is on this earth is important to living a life of happiness and fulfilment. Rather than the pursuit of pleasure and material wealth, there is an actual meaning to our life. Such meaning gives people a reason for their life and that there is a greater purpose in life. To understand the greater impact of your work and why you chose the pursuit that work will help you enjoy the tasks more and become more satisfied and happier. A sense of meaning and purpose can be derived from belonging to and serving something bigger than the self. There are various societal institutions that enable a sense of meaning, such as religion, family, science, politics, work organizations, justice, the community, social causes (e.g., being green), among others.

- A – Accomplishments

Having goals and ambition in life can help us to achieve things that can give us a sense of accomplishment. You should make realistic goals that can be met and just putting in the effort to achieving those goals can already give you a sense of satisfaction when you finally achieve those goals a sense of pride and fulfilment will be reached. Having accomplishments in life is important to push ourselves to thrive and flourish. People pursue achievement, competence, success, and mastery for its own sake, in a variety of domains, including the workplace, sports, games, hobbies, etc. People pursue accomplishment even when it does not necessarily lead to positive emotion, meaning, or relationships.

Each of these five building blocks contributes to well-being and:

- Is pursued for its own sake, not as a means to an end
- Is defined and measured independently of the other elements.

Thus, this second movement conceptualizes that the goal of Positive Psychology is to increase *flourishing,* a construct that encompasses the increase of positive emotion, engagement, meaning, positive relationships and accomplishment, involving an existence provided of a greater meaning. The flow state was notably investigated by Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (1997) and involves the perceived challenges or opportunities for action that expand the existing personal skills. To increase the likelihood of producing flow, this author has developed, for instance, intervention programs that modify work environments. Other studies, as reported by DelleFave and Massimini (1992), support the concept of flow as a state of optimal involvement in which the person does not realize the challenges of the action as an underutilization or burden of his actual skills but has clear and reachable goals, as well as immediate *f*eedback on their progress (Snyder & Lopez, 2009). As previously highlighted, the flow state can be achieved or enhanced from high levels of challenges and skills, which creates the possibility of understanding this concept as a promoter of attitudes of greater personal engagement in the resolution of problems, decreasing the weight given to external factors and prioritizing personal attitudes in the development of more suitable coping strategies and the capability of promoting significant changes.

This change in purpose, by itself, indicates an important transition in Positive Psychology, broadening the scope of this approach and enabling a more scientific

examination of well-being. The highly-desired flourishing ceases to be a particular aspect and starts to be shared by communities such that the pursuit of well-being can be concrete, real and achievable. Obviously, further studies on what flourishing is, in fact, must be conducted, as well as on the effects of this concept on human development. In Brazil, the discussion is still in a premature state with only rare studies being conducted concerning the subject of flourishing; therefore, the information available is still fundamentally based on the findings of the international scientific community.

## 3. Family Protective Factors

### 3.1. The Theory of Resilience

Resiliency theory is a theoretical perspective that has been developed within developmental psychopathology and ecosystems perspective. In 1979, Kobasa introduced the concept of ‘‘hardiness’’, which has been defined as a stable personality resource that consists of three psychological attitudes: commitment, challenge, and control. Commitment is the ability to make positive reinterpretation of critical situations; control refers to the belief that individuals can influence the course of his live, and challenge refers to a belief that fulfilment in life results from the wisdom gained from difficult experiences (Maddi & Khoshaba, 1994). The concept of resilience was developed to “describe relative resistance to psychosocial risk experiences” (Rutter, 1999b, p. 119). Richardson (2002) defined resilience as the process of coping with adversity that contributes to the development and enrichment of protective factors.

According to Vanistendael (1995), resilience consists of two components: resistance against destruction (as a person's capacity to protect his or her integrity under stress) and the ability to construct a positive life in spite of adversity. Traditionally, resilience has been conceptualized as an individual trait (Block & Block, 1980) that helps a child achieve desirable emotional and social functioning despite exposure to negative life events (Rutter, 1985).The term "resilience" has also become known through Werner's work on healthy growth of adolescents and adults despite unfavourable developmental conditions. Werner discovered that, at least during sensitive periods of their development, children had to be supported by an empathic and caring adult (Werner, 1990).

### 3.2. Vulnerability and Risk Factors

Vulnerability factors and protective factors are core constructs of resiliency theory. Risk factors have been conceptualized as conditions of adversity and factors that reduce resistance to stressors. Protective mechanisms may operate in several ways, according to Rutter (1987): by reducing risk impact, by reducing negative reactions to risk factors, by promoting resiliency traits (i.e., the opposite of vulnerability factors), and by setting up new opportunities for success. Protective and risk mechanisms can vary according to the type of adversity, type of resilient outcome, and life stage under analysis; protective factors in one context may be vulnerability in another (Rutter, 1999). Resilience has been associated consistently with positive outcomes even in those experiencing significant adversity (Masten&Coatsworth, 1998). Based on theoretical definitions of resilience, two conditions are required to identify this process: exposure to adversity and positive developmental outcome (Masten&Coatsworth,

1998). The concept of resilience was developed to describe resistance to psychosocial risk experiences (Rutter, 1999), as a dynamic process encompassing positive adaptation within the context of significant adversity (Luthar et.al., 2000). Initially, resilience was viewed as a personal trait that allowed individuals who are at risk or threat of loss to adjust and continue to have a normal live despite adversity. More recently, resilience is conceived as an outcome of the relationships or interactions between individual, families andcommunities.

### 3.3. Protective factors

A protective factor can be defined as "a characteristic at the biological, psychological, family, or community (including peers and culture) level that is associated with a lower likelihood of problem outcomes or that reduces the negative impact of a risk factor on problem outcomes." Conversely, a risk factor can be defined as "a characteristic at the biological, psychological, family, community, or cultural level that precedes and is associated with a higher likelihood of problem outcomes." Protective factors refer to variables that increase resilience to psychological disorder by reducing the impact of risk factors.

### 3.4.Family Resilience

Family plays a huge role in the child's life, during the developmental stages. Family dynamics include leadership, decision-making, communication, flexibility, cohesion and support system. Thus, family is the best resource available for children whenever there is a problem. This is the reason way one of

the most well studied protective factors for children exposed to stress and trauma is effective parenting (Howell, Graham-Bermann, Czyz, & Lilly, 2010). Initially, resilience was viewed as a personal trait that allowed individuals (Masten&Coatsworth, 1998) but, more recently, Drummond and Marcellus (2003) describe resilience as the outcome of the relationships or interactions between individual, families and communities. Unfortunately, the relationships and causal patterns between individual, family and community levels are not clear – they appear independent, interdependent and complementary of each other.

Some family researchers conceive the family as a system impacting on the individual resilience. Caplan's (1982) study on the family as a support system is one such example. Despite addressing the family in the context of family stress and coping, his paper conceives of the family purely as a support system to the individual family member, as a vehicle for individual resilience. In a similar approach, Hawley and DeHann (1996) describe the family in two contexts: as a risk and as a protective factor, suggesting that, although family is an important source of support for children, it is also and a source of vulnerability. Both approaches consider the family merely as a context for the individual. Although there is movement from a purely intrapsychic conceptualisation of resilience to a more contextualised conceptualisation, the family remains in the background.

Firstly, and most commonly, the family can serve as a risk factor raising the vulnerability of family members. Family risk factors for children include a single-parent household, the family's poverty, illness of parents, parent's psychiatric disorder, marital conflict, domestic violence, criminal family activity,

imprisonment of one of the parents, foster placement, death of parents or grandparents,physical, emotional, or sexual abuse, parental divorce, remarriage of parents etc. Some of these factors (such as divorce) could have implications for children even in their adulthood (Das, 2010).Much of the literature on resilience has, in fact, considered resilience in relation to the profoundly dysfunctional family creating a very negative image of families (Walsh, 1996).

Secondly, the family can serve as a protective factor to boost the resilience of the family members. Protective factors include "a good fit between parent and child, maintenance of family rituals, proactive confrontation of problems, minimal conflict in the home during infancy, the absence of divorce during adolescence, and a productive relationship between a child and his or her mother" (Hawley & De Haan, 1996, p. 285). The protective effect of family relationships was supported by previously research (Bifulco, Brown, & Harris, 1987). The presence of one warm supportive parent can help buffer the adverse effects of poverty, divorce, family conflict, and child abuse (Luther & Zigler, 1991). Risk factors, as childhood disability, did not necessarily predict long-term negative outcomes if family resilience andcommunity support are strong. Conversely, a strong sense of self-esteem and self-efficacywhich are known protective factors did not necessarily protect childrenfrom risk. Moreover, although some internal factors are associated with resilience ornon-resilience, these relationships were mediated by environmental influences (Johnson& Howard, 2007). Leon, Ragsdale, Miller, and Spacarelli (2008)also studied parental practices and theyconclude that there is a positive association between positive changes in trauma symptom checklist scores and positive parenting practices.The family

playsan importantrole in building children resilience and in the prevention of risky behaviour (Veselska et al., 2008). The extended family unit is also important and includes parents, brothers/ sisters and grandparents. Siblings can have an essential protective role in children's adjustment over time, by pleasing the social needs of children and providing an additional source of support (Bowes, Maughan, Caspi, Moffitt, and Arseneault, 2010). Family resilience, warm family relationships and positive home environments were associated with both emotional and behavioural resilience (Bowes et al., 2010). Zakeri, Bahram, and Maryam (2010)also investigated the relationship between the parenting styles and resilience. The results of their study showed that therewas a positive and significant association between acceptance-involvement parenting style and resilience. More specifically, warmth, supporting, and child-centred parenting style were associated with the development of resilience. Better parenting practices and better maternal mental health are significant predictors of children's resilience (Howell et al., 2010). Graham-Bermanna, Grubera, Howell, and Girzb (2009) conducted a study to explore factors that differentiate children with poor adjustment from those with resilience. They found that effective parenting behaviours, such as using appropriate discipline and setting limits may protect children by providing positive role models. Children who do not share problems with parents and who have feelings of being overly controlled by parents had higher levels of delinquency (Mukhopadhyay, 2010). Resilience can be enhanced by encouraging positive environments within families, schools andcommunities, in order to neutralize risks in children's lives. Out of these three environments, the family is the most immediate care-giving environment and has the greatest impact on thedevelopment of resilience in children (Brooks, 2006).

## 3.5. Family Protective Factors

The current focus is on the Five Core Family Protective Factors. The Five Protective Factors are the foundation of the Strengthening Families approach. Extensive evidence supports the common sense notion that when these Protective Factors are present and robust in a family, the likelihood of abuse and neglect diminish. Research also shows that these are the factors that create healthy environments for the optimal development of all children.

### A. Parent Resilience

No one can eliminate stress from parenting, but building parental resilience can affect how a parent deals with stress. Parental resilience is the ability to constructively cope with and bounce back from all types of challenges. It is about creatively solving problems, building trusting relationships, maintaining a positive attitude, and seeking help when it is needed.

### B. Knowledge of Parenting and Child Development

Having accurate information about raising young children and appropriate expectations for their behavior help parents better understand and care for children. It is important that information is available when parents need it, that is, when it is relevant to their life and their child. Parents whose own families used harsh discipline techniques or parents of children with developmental or behavior problems or special needs require extra support in building this Protective Factor.

### C. Social and Emotional Competence of Children

A child's ability to interact positively with others, to self-regulate, and to effectively communicate his or her emotions has a great impact on the parent-child relationship. Children with challenging behaviors are more likely to be abused, so early identification and working with them helps keep their development on track and keeps them safe. Also, children who have experienced or witness violence need a safe environment that offers opportunities to develop normally.

D. Social Connections

Friends, family members, neighbors, and other members of a community provide emotional support and concrete assistance to parents. Social connections help parents build networks of support that serve multiple purposes: they can help parents develop and reinforce community norms around childrearing, aiding in times of need, and serve as a resource for parenting information or help solving problems. Because isolation is a common risk factor for abuse and neglect, parents who are isolated need support in building positive friendships.

E. Concrete Support in Times of Need

Parents need access to the types of concrete supports and services that can minimize the stress of difficult situations, such as a family crisis, a condition such as substance abuse, or stress associated with lack of resources. Building this Protective Factor is about helping to ensure the basic needs of a family, such as food, clothing, and shelter, are met and connecting parents and children to services, especially those that have a stigma associated with them, like domestic violence shelter or substance abuse counselling, in times of crisis.

## 4. Dynamics of Healthy Relationships

The literature on close relationships is dense, with several established models and a lot of experimental data. It's hard to put it all together. There is no single over-arching framework which synthesizes elements identified across multiple research-supported theoretical models.

Scholars Finkel, Simpson and Eastwick (2017) however, set out to create an integrative perspective on the relationship literature with the goals of refining existing theories, generating new theories, and attempting to move relationship science forward by providing a framework which increases cohesion and reduce conflict among various models.

Presented here is a synopsis of their framework and findings. The authors review the existing literature, distilling down fourteen core principles of relationship function. The fourteen principles are grouped into four "sets" based on key organizing questions about what relationships are, how they work, what people bring to relationships as individuals, and how outside factors, such as culture, affect relationships.

The authors incorporate multiple models and cite supporting scientific studies, drawing on attachment theory and interdependence theory as the two most influential over-arching frameworks, in addition to drawing upon risk regulation theory, self-expansion theory, the communal/exchange model, the interpersonal process model of intimacy, and the vulnerability-stress-adaptation model.

In addition to richly cited experimental findings, textbooks, and review articles, the authors refined their meta-framework with review and input from sixteen preeminent relationship researchers in psychology. Much of what the authors review is familiar and immediately relevant. The work is clear and logically organized, with practical implications. The fourteen factors are comprehensive and intuitive, often immediately relevant for thorny relationship situations.

The factors described by Finkel, Simpson and Eastwick are distinct from one another, though interrelated, in how they influence relationships. The fourteen core principles are organized into the sets mentioned above as follows:

1. What is a relationship? Uniqueness, Integration, Trajectory

2. How do relationships operate? Evaluation, Responsiveness, Resolution, Maintenance

3. What tendencies do people bring into their relationships? Predisposition, Instrumentality, Standards

4. How does the context affect relationships? Diagnostic, Alternatives, Stress, Culture.

The fourteen core relationship principles

i. Uniqueness: Relationship outcomes depend not only on the specific qualities of each partner but also on the unique patterns that emerge when the partners' qualities intersect. Relationships take on a life of their own, arising from but partially independent of the people involved, which influence

relationship satisfaction. For example, high levels of mutual commitment lead to better wellness outcomes. In relationships where one person has an anxious attachment style and the other person has an avoidant style, the anxious person is likely to have difficulty talking with the avoidant person about positive things, and thus feel dissatisfied. In relationships where one partner is more neurotic and the other disagreeable (two of the "Big Five" personality dimensions), the neurotic person is more likely to feel depressed during becoming a parent. Many complex factors come together to give each relationship it's unique character.

ii. Integration: Opportunities and motivations for interdependence tend to facilitate cognitive, affective, motivational, or behavioural merging between partners. People in close relationships, especially over time, tend to become blended together, losing some sense of individuality as their union evolves. Individual factors such as self-regulation and self-concept may shift, being replaced by mutual regulation and a sense of shared identity springing from the uniqueness of every relationship. Researchers have shown, for example, that when people become closer, they tend to think in more complimentary terms of their partners as people typically do of themselves, which increases the overall self-esteem of the couple through mutually positive synergy. Additionally, couples who collaborate well further one another's goals, individual and shared.

iii. Trajectory: The long-term trajectories of relationship dynamics are affected by each partner’s continually updated perceptions of the couple’s

relationship-relevant interactions and experiences. Over time relationships change, and hopefully grow rather than petering out or crashing and burning. While various models of relationship change are based on different factors, relationships generally go through developmental stages, analogous to individual development. At each stage, couples navigate different tasks or face new challenges, with opportunities for greater commitment, intimacy and growth along with the hazards of poorly handling difficult times. Passion tends to be stronger earlier in relationships, whereas caregiving and attachment take on greater weight over time.

iv. Evaluation: People evaluate their relationships and partners according to a set of positive and negative constructs, which tend to be moderately negatively correlated. We routinely evaluate the world around us, other people, and ourselves. Typically positives and negatives are inversely correlated - when there are more positives, there are less negatives, and vis-a-versa. Relationships can be more difficult if there are high levels of both positive and negative, creating ambivalence. Following Sternberg's triangular theory of love, for example, people may evaluate relationships based on passion, intimacy and commitment. Another influential perspective holds that relationship quality is reflected by evaluation on six dimensions: commitment, trust, love, passion, intimacy, and satisfaction.
Recognizing that evaluation has conscious and unconscious components, and considering their impact, can help couples function better and be more satisfied.

v. Responsiveness: Responsive behaviours promote relationship quality for both the self and the partner. Mutual responsiveness is a key aspect of relationships. Partners in a successful relationship support one another's "core needs and values". The ways that partners are responsive is important as well. For some relationships, responding right away can feel too much like a transaction if on partner is into sharing without expecting something in return, and the other more tit-for-tat. In general, with high mutuality, both partners feel safer and more positive about themselves, and so are willing to be more vulnerable in the relationship, which in turn usually increases closeness. Some attachment styles interact with responsiveness. For example, insecurely attached people may be less responsive when their partners are upset, and when insecurely attached people receive support they may actually feel more insecure as a result. Research has shown that relationships with higher levels of support promote well-being; the individuals involved are happier and healthier than counterparts in less supportive relationships.

vi. Resolution: The manner in which partners communicate about and cope with relationship events affects long-term relationship quality and stability. How couples address negative events is crucial to building healthy relationships over time. Negative events have a greater impact than positive events, similar to how people give criticism more weight than praise. How couples deal with conflict is especially important. How couples address conflict can be thought of along two interacting lines: constructive/destructive, and active/passive. Active, constructive conflict management tends to contribute to long-term

relationship satisfaction and a lower chance of breaking up. Research from Gottman and Levenson has revealed four behavioural patterns associated with relationships in trouble: "globally criticizing your partner's personality, responding defensively to your partner's criticism, conveying the belief that your partner is beneath you, and refusing to engage with your partner's concerns." Forgiveness is important, and tends to be correlated with better relationship outcomes and growth for both partners - but only when adequate amends are paired with authentic forgiveness.

vii. Maintenance: Partners in committed relationships exhibit cognitions and behaviours that promote the relationship's persistence over time, even if doing so involves self-deceptive biases. Relationships take work to maintain, particularly over longer periods of time. A little bit tricking oneself can go a long way, according to research, though obviously self-deception can go too far. At times, people put aside their own apparent self-interest for the good of the relationship. Of course, tending to the relationship is in their interest, too. People are aware of decisions they make to keep relationships going, but a lot takes place outside of awareness. When people make a commitment to a relationship, they see things differently, and behave correspondingly, including believing their relationships is superior to others, downplaying or foregoing romantic options outside of the relationship, giving things up for the relationship, and letting go of grudges more easily after an offense. Research shows that having an inflated sense of a partner's positive attributes correlates with good relationship outcomes, as does interpreting their behaviours in a more generous light.

viii. Predisposition: People bring certain basic qualities of personality and temperament to their relationships, some of which influence their own and their partners' relationship wellbeing. Even as relationships become integrated over time, the raw materials of the relationship are the strengths and liabilities which the individuals bring to the table. For example, strengths might include resilience, good self-image, or a secure attachment style, and liabilities might including greater neuroticism, difficulty handling rejection, or avoidant ways of coping with life's challenges. The authors note that a communal approach to relationships can help to hold things together through challenging times, and that a neurotic predisposition predicts greater difficulty in relationships.

ix. Instrumentality: People bring certain goals and needs to their relationships, and the dynamics between the two partners affect the extent to which they succeed in achieving these goals and meeting these needs. Under good circumstances, relationships further the goals and needs of the individuals involved. Part of the motivation to be in relationships in the first place, therefore, connects with efforts people make to meet those goals and needs. There are obvious goals, such as child rearing and the need for bonding, which are often shared goals. There are others goals which are more individual, and couples in successful relationships typically further one another's pursuits, offering one another help and increasing overall efficiency. Interestingly, research has shown that people in relationships can endure pain better while looking at a photo of their partner, which correlates

with brain activity associated with safety. In successful relationships, people find ways to make use of one another, rather than using one another.

x. Standards: People bring certain standards to their relationships and tend to experience greater relationship wellbeing when their relationships exceed these standards. There are several relationship models which look at the role of standards in relationship satisfaction and dysfunction. People commonly recognize that shared values, expectations, desires and ideals are important in relationships. As you might expect, research shows that unrealistically high standards lead to low relationship quality. Likewise, high standards make for better relationships when they increase motivation and support self-improvement efforts - a good relationship brings out the best in both partners.

xi. Diagnostic: Situations vary in the extent to which they afford opportunities to evaluate a partner's true goals and motives regarding the relationship. Since people tend to assess oneself and others, and the environment they are in, individuals in a relationship are involved in a process of assessing how the relationship is doing and what might be going right - and wrong. Stressful situations really bring out the need to think about the quality of the relationship, and identify problem areas. A "strain test" happens when what is positive for one partner requires a big sacrifice from the other, like a job change which requires one partner move and the other pull up roots. The bigger the sacrifice, the lower the level of connection the sacrificing partner has where they are going, the greater the increase in trust and commitment. Such situations require both partners to make

important decisions without full assurance, taking risks in the face of uncertainty, and getting through them successfully supports the couples' perception of having a good relationships they can be proud of, together.

xii. Alternatives: The presence of attractive alternatives to a current relationship—including the option of not being in a relationship at all—threatens relationship quality and persistence. Especially when relationships are strained, people consider their alternatives. What could be different in the relationship? Should we stay together? Would I be happier with someone else, someone like- who is a friend/co-worker/ex? Would I be better off alone? How we weigh alternatives varies with relationship quality. Highly committed people in satisfying relationships rate alternate mates as less attractive than their peers in troubled relationships, for example. From an evolutionary point of view, when people invest a lot of resources in a relationship, they are more motivated to try to make it work so they don't lose all they've invested. Under such circumstances, we downgrade appealing alternatives, helping keep the relationship safe from infidelity and keep the focus on the current partner. Interestingly, the study authors note that polyamory may decrease the threat of being rejected by permitting alternatives and making them transparent, leading to relationship stability.

xiii. Stress: High demands external to the relationship predict worse relationship outcomes, especially if the demands exceed the two partners' (individual or combined) resources for coping. Stressful situations test relationships, and use personal and material resources which otherwise might contribute to a

higher quality relationship. Major stressors including unemployment, money issues, going to jail, a serious illness, fertility difficulties, and tragedies like disasters can lead to relationship breakdown and failure. Whether couples use adaptive coping strategies becomes crucial when times are tough, and some coping strategies are more effective than others. Studies show that when personal resources are depleted, people are more likely to be defensive and retaliate when their buttons are pushed. There are many factors which go into how couples may optimally handle high-stake life events.

xiv. Culture: Relationships are embedded in social networks and a cultural milieu—including norms, practices, and traditions—that shape the nature and trajectory of those relationships. Times change, and societal views shape how people approach relationships and what they are looking for from them. Nowadays, there are so many perspectives on relationships, including the availability of research findings, that people don't always know what cultural influences are at play. Approval or disapproval by friends, family and others can shape the path a relationship takes and how cohesive it becomes. Speculatively, while it seems that approval would hold people together, disapproval might push them apart - or they might band together against disapproving people, possibly at the expense of those relationships. Likewise, cultural and family sexual beliefs and practices strongly influence relationships.

So, those are the 14 core principles in a nutshell. This can be viewed as an edifying and organizing schema, and a stimulating read. The authors here have synthesized

much of the literature and have putting it into a straightforward and common-sense framework.

## 5. Culture

### 5.1. Definition

Culture can be generally defined as an interrelated set of values, tools, and practices that is shared among a group of people who possess a common social identity. More simply, culture is the sum total of our worldviews or of our ways of living. Cultural world-views affect a range of psychological processes, including perceptual, cognitive, personality, and social processes, but are thought to most strongly influence social psychological processes.

For much of the 20th century, there was scant research and publishing on the subject of culture and behaviour in the general psychological literature. Some of the more notable exceptions are seen in the work of Wilhelm Wundt, Lev Vygotsky, and Frederic Bartlett. One influential finding on cultural effects was made by Marshall Segall in the 1960s, who, along with his colleagues, found that Africans and Westerners varied in their susceptibility to certain visual illusions, theoretically because of their differential exposure to build environments and wide vistas. Apart from such isolated cases of research, however, much of the early academic study of the behavioural effects of culture can be drawn from the work of social anthropologists.

Since 1970, social psychologists have paid significant attention to the effects of culture on behaviour. This growth was due, in part, to the increased level of intercultural interaction and its associated challenges that occurred with the rapid expansion in global communication, economies, and migration in the intervening period. Advances in social psychological theory and research methodology also facilitated more interest in the study of culture. As a result, knowledge about culture and behaviour increased significantly in the latter half of the 20th century, principally through the work of social psychologists like Harry Triantis, Geert Hofstede, Hazel Markus and ShinobuKitayama, Shalom Schwartz, and Richard Nisbett, among others.

## 5.2.Cross-Cultural Approach:

Many contemporary social psychologists who investigate the effects of culture do so by comparing national cultures to determine universal and culture-specific patterns of behavior. Cross-cultural research is conducted primarily from the sociocognitive perspective and focuses on the cultural values, beliefs, and attitudes or cultural knowledge that distinguishes the behavior of people with different national backgrounds.

One prominent tool employed by cross-cultural researchers is to classify nations by their relative support for individualism or collectivism. Individualism is a set of values, beliefs, and attitudes that emphasize the importance of people pursuing their individual goals and behavior. Collectivism is manifest in values, beliefs, and attitudes that emphasize the importance of people following group

goals and group norms for behavior. Research has shown North American, Western European, and Australian cultures to be relatively individualistic, while Japanese and Chinese cultures are comparatively collectivistic.

Individualistic and collectivistic cultures encourage people to adopt a certain set of interrelated values, beliefs, and perceptions of the self and the group. A person exposed to an individualistic culture is more likely to value personal autonomy, freedom of expression, and self-enhancement than is a person from a collectivistic culture, who would contrastingly be more likely to value obedience, tradition, and group enhancement. In addition, individualistic cultures encourage people to adopt an independent self-view or distinguish the self from others, whereas people in collectivistic cultures view themselves as more interdependent or connected to others. As a consequence, the individual and the group are perceived as the more prominent agent in behavior in individualistic and collectivistic cultures, respectively.

The distinction made between individualistic and collectivistic cultures helps explain a range of behaviors. Research has shown that North Americans attribute behavior to individual volition or internal dispositions. Chinese, on the other hand, attribute behavior to the influence of a person's primary reference groups or other factors external to the individual, such as situational influences. It has also been shown that the preference for maintaining harmonious interpersonal and intragroup communication patterns is much stronger in collectivistic than individualistic cultures. Individualism and collectivism are even manifested in language practices with Westerners more prone to use first person pronouns (e.g., I, me) than are people from collectivistic cultures.

While the classification of nations according to broad constructs such as individualism and collectivism is a powerful tool in cross-cultural psychology, our understanding of cultural knowledge is not limited to this extent. Nations have been shown to vary on other distinct systems of cultural values, such as the level of universalism, security, or power they promote. Moreover, groups within nations (e.g., states, regions, organizations) and groups that transcend national boundaries (youth, arts, religious groups) exhibit their own distinct cultural knowledge.

Cultural knowledge is thought to have evolved to meet a range of significant social and basic emotional needs. On one level, cultural values and practices give order and structure to the social world, be it to nations, societies, or groups. At another level, culture fulfills the individual emotional need for belonging, and the need for purpose and meaning to existence. Recent work by Jeff Greenberg and his colleagues also highlights that cultural worldviews fulfill the need for self-esteem: Self-esteem is derived from being seen to have successfully performed culturally valued behaviors.

The range of social and emotional needs that cultural worldviews meet helps explains why people are prone to show strong allegiance to their culture and their cultural group. Indeed, research has shown that raising existential anxiety among people leads them to strongly endorse their cultural values and beliefs and derogate, or distance themselves from, culturally different values or others.

5.2.1. Individualistic Culture: Much like the term suggests, an individualistic culture emphasizes upon giving greater importance to the needs of an individual over the needs of a group or a community. In this kind of

culture, people are more concerned with themselves and their immediate family, as opposed to a collectivist culture where the group's needs are given equal or more importance. Members of an individualistic society are independent and self-reliant, and their behavior is determined by personal attitude and personal preferences.

An individualistic culture encourages autonomy, and often, dependence on others for one's own needs is considered degrading. Members of this culture are expected to be assertive and strong, always putting personal needs over the needs of others.

Individualistic culture promotes the 'I, Me, Myself' identity as well as individual goals, individual achievements, and individual aspirations. This kind of culture takes pride in making its members completely self-reliant and not dependent upon anyone else for anything at all. An individualistic culture is more task-oriented, meaning, it tends to give tasks more importance over relationships or anything else.Individualistic cultures believe that being completely independent benefits the individual, which ultimately benefits the society as a whole.

- Communication in Individualistic Culture: Communication in an individualistic culture is entirely different as compared to a collectivist culture. In an individualistic culture, communication is more direct. For instance, if A wants to know something from B, A will ask B a direct question which B is expected to answer just as directly. Any communication in this culture is expected to be

very precise and to the point. This style of communication is also called a low-context communication style.

This style of communication is encouraged in an individualistic culture to avoid any misconceptions or misunderstandings that may be born from 'reading between the lines'. Speaking clearly and eloquently is expected, and individuals are encouraged to prove their own point wherever the need may arise. Communication in an individualistic society focuses on the sole purpose of communication and not on the relationship between the communicating individuals. Hence, it is more open and liberal as compared to communicating in collectivist cultures.

- Advantages of Individualistic Culture: As we have seen from its unique characteristics, there is no doubt that an individualistic culture has several advantages accompanying it. As opposed to a collectivist culture, an individualistic culture promotes the concept of finding happiness in one's own beliefs, ideas, thoughts, and experiences. This paves the way for personal happiness and inner peace, which cannot always be experienced by those who try to find their happiness according to the norms set by their social group. Individualistic cultures also encourage their members to dream their own dreams and achieve them, without fear of rejection from the group or any interference. Members of an individualistic culture are often rewarded for their individual hard work and efforts, which ultimately benefits the society as a whole.

- Examples of Individualistic Culture:

We cannot declare that a certain percent of the cultures that make up the world are individualistic, or not. However, according to our opinions largely based on observations, it is quite clear which countries promote individualism, and which don't. Given below are examples of some of the most popular individualistic cultures.

  - The United States of America
  - Canada
  - The United Kingdom
  - Ireland
  - France
  - Germany
  - Netherlands
  - Sweden
  - Australia
  - South Africa

We can also spot instances of individualistic culture in day-to-day life.

5.2.2. Collectivistic Culture: According to Merriam-Webster dictionary, "Collectivism is the emphasis on collective rather than individual action or identity." Collectivist group or culture exists for the purpose of maximizing the common goal of all the individuals. It stresses on the interdependence of every human being and in few cases the value of cohesion within the social group. They mainly focus on community,

society, or the nation. There are two types of collectivism horizontal and vertical. Horizontal collectivism focuses on collective decision-making among the equal individuals, say, for example decentralization (cooperative enterprise). Vertical Collectivism follows hierarchical structure, for example centralization (military hierarchy).

Collectivist culture is often portrayed as the polar opposite of individualistic culture. Theoretically collectivist culture goes beyond the prime motive of an individual need as opposed to individualistic culture. Collectivist culture emphasizes on teamwork and cooperation. They place large importance on family cohesion, solidarity, and conformity. People in this group tend to stress group goals and follow the expectation and rules of the group. They are interdependent on each other, exhibit more empathy and reciprocity. The rights in a collectivist society are ascertained by mutual respect and understanding that every individual has a certain responsibility or task to carry out for the betterment of their society or culture. People in a collectivist group are willing to sacrifice their personal goals, even when their obligation towards the group are personally disadvantageous.

A classic example of Collectivist culture is the voting system. After people vote for their President or any person, and a leader is selected by the population, everyone has to accept him/her as their leader, despite the fact if they have voted for him/her or not. Here the will of the supporters i.e. the collective mattered a lot, because it is

because of this group, that particular man became the president. The will of the group was far more important than the individual will.

- Characteristics of Collectivist Culture

‣ Self-reliance is accepted when it aims at not troubling others with our own burdens in the collective group. People following collectivist culture have been grilled since childhood to obey, listen, tolerate, and sacrifice personal ambition. They are aware of how dependent they are on others.

‣ They are scared of the criticism coming from another group, this is what prevents them from attaining individual goals.

‣ In such a culture, people are highly attached to one another and they are held high in regard when they do something for the group or the society. Since they have to depend on the group for their survival and recognition, they are aware of their behavior and manners in the same collective group.

‣ Individual motives are suppressed rather than encouraged. Us is the center of importance, and ideal group is the one who works hard with all the members in the group. A student studies hard to score higher marks for his family, not for himself. A person before leaving his job has to think about his family and consult them before taking any decision.

‣ In collectivist culture, status in based on the sex, age, family. People are most comfortable with vertical hierarchical relationship. The father and the son, husband and wife, wife and kids, elder brother and younger

brother, the former relations are superior, while latter are inferior. Inferiors have to obey the orders or suggestions of the former.

‣ Cooperation is one such thing which keeps them together. They should not do anything which acts as a threat in the collective group. Competition or jealousy are often looked down upon or are prohibited. However, members of one group can compete with members of othergroups.

- Benefits of Collectivist Culture

‣ Collectivist culture follows the principle of unification and common goal, families are considered necessary for personal growth.

‣ Another advantage is that individuals in collectivist culture are close-knit and naturally they care about each other, which is a feature missing in individualistic culture.

‣ Effective communication is another benefit. Nobody is left out in the loop and everybody's opinion and viewpoint is considered.

‣ Family is given an upper hand, they are their first priority. They emphasize on loyalty towards each family member.

- Collectivist Culture Communication

‣ Since a collectivist culture follows the rule of working together as a group, every individual is involved in the discussion and informed about everything. Even if minor changes are going to take place.

‣ Every individual is made aware of the goal, their task. Each and every suggestion is welcomed and are considered.

- However, they refrain from making any public remark on any person from their group. They find the direct communication style of individualistic culture rude.

- Examples of Collectivist Culture

  Collectivist culture has been practiced in many fields such as economic, government, political, education throughout history and in many societies. Countries which promote collectivist culture are:

  - Panama
  - Columbia
  - Costa Rica
  - Peru
  - Taiwan
  - Belarus
  - South Korea
  - Armenia
  - El Salvador
  - Armenia
  - Portugal
  - Latin America

# CHAPTER- II

# REVIEW OF LITERATURE

# CHAPTER-II

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter comprises of the current literature available in context of the variables discussed above, in order to address the current trend. Each variable and the associated literature are discussed respectively.

1. PERMA Model

   PERMA as a model comprises of five building blocks which are independent , empirical and supportive predictors of flourishing (which is referred to as an optimal level of well-being). The literature in context to these five indicators and the model as whole is presented here.

A study conducted by Lambert and Louise (2016), aimed to determine whether descriptions of happiness would align with the PERMA model pathways. The results showed that the way in which happiness was described overlapped with the PERMA pathways in culturally consistent ways.

Coffey, Wray-Lake, Mashek & Branand (2016), conducted a multi-study comprising of two studies. In Study 1, a longitudinal examination of college students, participants completed measures of well- being (including four of the five PERMA indicators), physical health, and college success at the end of their sophomore, junior, and senior years. In Study 2, a larger, cross-sectional study was conducted online to further validate the PERMA model with a broader sample and all five PERMA indicators. Study 1 and Study 2 PERMA models predicted markers of well-being and flourishing (e.g., physical health).

For the purpose of the research Kern, Waters, Adler & White (2015 ), tested male on the multidimensional approach of PERMA. From an extensive well-being assessment, a subset of items theoretically relevant to PERMA were selected. Factor analyses recovered four of the five PERMA elements, and two ill-being factors (depression and anxiety). The results indicated that by directly assessing subjective well-being across multiple domains offers the potential for schools to more systematically understand and promote well-being.

Khawand Kern (2014), extend the PERMA-Profiler to the Malaysian culture. The data of sample means was compared to data previously collected from participants in the United States. It was found Malaysian sample was significantly lower than the US sample on all of the PERMA domains. The results provided the opportunity to understand well-being more comprehensively in different cultures and evaluate how individuals in specific cultures flourish.

Kloos and Westerhof (2017), used a semi-structured interview scheme, about the good life and the PERMA model. Twenty-five people between the age of 22 and 86 were recruited on the basis of three age criteria (young age: 20-40, middle age: 41-65, old age: 66 and beyond). The statements of the participants were coded both deductive and inductive. The results showed that the elements of the PERMA model were perceived as important for a good life in every age group and related to the different topics as work or social factors.

2. Protective Factors

There are various family protective factors that are not only essential in an individual's life in order to combat with the risk factors that life has to offer, but also to promote well-being in them.

Koria et.al., (2015), assessed that whether a parent's psychological well-being and/or self-efficacy relate to interaction within the family. Mother-father-child triadic interaction was studied at 18 months within a Lausanne Triadic Play setting. The findings suggested that maternal psychological well-being and self-efficacy in emotional support may be important components of family triadic interaction whereas paternal self-efficacy in teaching tasks seems to support family coordination in triadic interaction.

Jordan and Graham (2012) used a survey study method of research on the well-being of children in transnational households in South-East Asia. Results indicated that while children of migrant parents, especially migrant mothers, are less likely to be happy compared to children in non-migrant households, greater resilience in child well-being is associated to longer durations of maternal absence.

Orbuch (2005) took into consideration The Resiliency Model of Family Stress, Adjustment, and Adaptation and proposed that chief among these potential strengths are high quality parent-child relationships. Data from self-report questionnaires of childhood cancer were analyzed. The findings indicated that survivors who report better relationships with their mothers and fathers consistently report a higher quality of life, especially in the psychological domain.

A meta-analytic methods to pool information was employed by Amato and Gilbreth (1999), to deal with non-resident fathers and children's well-being. The results suggested that fathers' payment of child support was positively associated with measures of children's well-being. Along with this two additional dimensions of the father-child relationship i.e., feelings of closeness and authoritative parenting were positively associated with children's academic success on one hand and negatively associated with children's externalizing and internalizing problems on the other.

Wenk, Hardesty, Morgan and Blair (1994) aimed to study and addresses the parental involvement during childhood and adolescence and its influences on the well-being of sons and daughters. After analysing the longitudinal data, the results indicated that children's perceptions of maternal and paternal behavioral and emotional involvement are found to be equally important for the well-being and there was no gender difference to be addressed.

Armsden and Greenberg (1987) conducted two studies. Study I involved the development of the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA). In Study II, the convergent validity of the IPPA was examined. Also, a hierarchical regression model was employed to investigate the association between quality of attachment and self-esteem, life-satisfaction, and affective status. It was hypothesized that, perceived quality of both parent and peer attachments was significantly related to psychological well-being. Results indicated that adolescents classified as highly securely attached reported greater satisfaction with themselves, a higher likelihood of seeking social support, and less symptomatic response to stressful life events.

McCabe and Clark (2010) studied the relations among family protective factors, stressful events, and behavioral adjustment were examined. Based on regression analyses, stress exposure associated positively with child social skill deficits, acting out, and shy or anxious behavior. Parental warmth was associated negatively with shy or anxious behavior. For youth exposed to high numbers of family stressors, parental demandingness was associated negatively with child acting out and kin support was associated negatively with acting out and shy or anxious behavior, suggesting that these family factors partially shield children from the negative effects of stress.

Dunst, Trivette and Cross (1986) examined the mediating influences of social support of mothers and fathers of mentally retarded, physically impaired, and developmentally at-risk children  Social system theory was used as a conceptual framework for assessing the effects of social support on personal well-being, parental attitudes toward their child, family integrity, parental perceptions of child functioning, parent–child play opportunities, and child behavior and development. Through multiple regression it was found that more supportive social networks were associated with better personal well-being, more positive attitudes, and more positive influences on parent–child play opportunities and child behavior and development.

Ekas, Lickenbrock and Whitman (2010) used structural equation modeling to examine the relationship between multiple sources of social support (e.g., partner, family, and friends), optimism, and well-being among mothers of children with ASD. Social support was examined as a mediator and moderator of the optimism-maternal well-being relationship. Moreover, the role of optimism as a mediator of the social support-maternal well-being relationship was also evaluated. Results revealed that family support was associated with increased optimism that, in turn, predicted higher levels of positive maternal outcomes and lower levels of negative maternal outcomes.

Using a nationally representative sample of children aged 11-16 who had experienced their parents' marital dissolution, Furstenberg, Morgan and Allison (1987), examined the influence of paternal involvement on the child's well-being. For measures of academic difficulty, problem behavior, and psychological distress, there is little evidence that paternal involvement had either harmful or beneficial effects. Paternal economic support reduced somewhat the likelihood of problem behavior.

3. Dynamics of Healthy Relationship

Here the focus is on how the healthy dynamics in a relationship promotes well-being in an individual.

Law and Ashleigh (2015) investigated the relationship between psychological well- being and uniqueness seeking behaviour. The findings suggested no direct relationship between psychological well-being and uniqueness seeking was found, although it was found that individuals would go to some length to protect their sense of uniqueness, that most individuals preferred a sense of moderate uniqueness to either extremely high or extremely low sense of uniqueness, and that most individuals are satisfied with their level of uniqueness. It is therefore concluded that uniqueness seeking influences psychological well-being indirectly by the relationship it has with self-image, self-identity, self-confidence, group identifications, and subjective happiness.

Tasfiliz et.al. (2018) attempted to put the growing evidence that supports the perceived partner responsiveness as a central relationship process predicting well-being to test. The aim was fulfilled by investigating whether the predictive role of perceived partner responsiveness in well-being differs across the United States and Japan. The sample completed measures of perceived partner responsiveness, hedonic and eudaimonic well-being, and demographic (age, gender, education) and personality (extraversion and neuroticism) covariates known to predict well-being. Perceived partner responsiveness positively predicted hedonic and eudaimonic well-being both in the U.S. and in Japan. However, perceived partner responsiveness more strongly predicted both types of well-being in the United States as compared with Japan.

Selcuk, Gunadyin, Ong and Almeida (2018) were driven by attachment theory and recent conceptualizations of perceived partner responsiveness as a core feature of close relationships. Hence they put it on test by examining the change in hedonic and eudaimonic well-being over a decade. Longitudinal analyses revealed that perceived partner responsiveness predicted increases in eudaimonic well-being a decade later however, it did not prospectively predict hedonic well-being.

Sharpe, Heppner and Dixon (1995), examined gender roles and gender role conflict in relation to a broad range of indices of psychological well-being in men. It was found that instrumentality continued to be the strongest correlate of traditional measures of well-being The results also suggested a weak association between gender role conflict and psychological well-being.

Parasurman, Greenhaus and Granrose (2006) examined the relationships among work and family role stressors, work-family conflict, social support, and well-being using data gathered from partners in a two-career relationship. Results showed that within-domain relationships of stressors with well-being are stronger than between-domain relationships. In other words, the finding suggested that work and family role stressors were primarily related to job satisfaction and family satisfaction respectively, whereas work and family role stressors as well as work—family conflict were associated with overall life stress. Similar results were found for the relationships of social support with well-being.

Murry et.al. (2008) investigated the effects of stressful life events on rural African American women's relationship well-being, psychological functioning, and parenting included 361 married or long-term cohabiting women. Associations among stressful events, socioeconomic status, perceived racial discrimination, coping strategies, psychological functioning, relationship well-being, and parenting were tested. Stressful events were related

directly to diminished relationship well-being and heightened psychological distress and indirectly to compromised parenting. The results can inform research and intervention with African American women.

Crowley (1998), noted a link between men's changing role as the family breadwinner and declines in their personal and marital well-being. To explore this link more fully, two aspects of the breadwinner role, earner status and self-perceived adequacy as the family breadwinner, were examined. Self-perceived inadequate breadwinners report more depression and marital conflict than adequate breadwinners. Men in single-earner families report less work-family stress than either main- or dual-earner men.

Baruch and Barnett (1986) Examined the relation of fathers' participation in child care and home chores to parents' role strain and well-being in an interview study of middle-class fathers and mothers of kindergarten and 4th-grade children. In half of the families, mothers were employed.Four forms of paternal participation were examined. Role-strain items referred to immediate and specific problems such as time and energy constraints and role conflicts. Well-being measures assessed self-esteem, life satisfaction, and quality of experience in the parental and marital roles. For fathers, higher levels of participation were associated with feeling more involved and competent as a parent and with being more critical of wives' patterns and parenting. For mothers, those whose husbands were more participant praised their husbands' parenting, but they were lower in life satisfaction and were more self-critical about their balance of work and family responsibilities.

# CHAPTER- III

# METHODOLOGY

# CHAPTER- III

# METHODOLOGY

## Rationale

There are various goals in life of an individual that s/he strives hard to achieve throughout their life. The overall impact of these goals and its achievement can be fairly witnessed on the well-being rejoiced by him or her. There have been various models that aim at explaining and justifying this notion of well-being however, the one that has gained much recognition among adults is the PERMA model. This model has been propounded by Martin Seligman. It assesses the well-being of an individual on five crucial aspects which include positive emotions experienced by him/her, the engagement in a particular task, relationship with others, meaning of life that guides him/her and accomplishments that s/he has to cherish.

PERMA has been found to be an important factor that has an influence on various aspects of the life of human. By and large, the current study focuses on the mediating effects of PERMA on two major aspects of a family.

A family is like a triangle that manifests between three different and yet interacting elements. This includes the individual, the romantic partner/spouse and a child. These three interact among each other in their own way. However, the well-being of an individual does have a powerful and crucial impact on the other two elements. Depending on the individual's well-being there are two elements of this triangle that will be influenced- the healthy relationship dynamic that s/he shares with his/her respective other and the protective factors that s/he has to offer to the child.

Well, apart from analysing the influential aspects of PERMA on the above-mentioned factors the present study also aims at identifying that how the three different cultural aspects viz., individualism, intermediate approach and collectivism have a different

role to play and influence them. Basically, an important element that is likely to influence the well-being of an individual is the culture that he belongs to and the proximity within the family that s/he can practice depending on the same. Other than having an influence on the PERMA, culture is also a part of the 14 dynamics of healthy relationship (Finkel, Simpson and Eastwick, 2017) and an important aspect that is taken under evaluation while understanding the protective factors that a parent has to offer to the child. Thus, the above-mentioned relations are studied in terms of the culture that an individual belongs to. Majorly, our focus will be on the degree of interdependence a society maintains among its members, which can be assessed under three heads viz., individualism, intermediate and collectivism. The determination of the fact that which country belongs to a respective culture orientation has been made by refereeing to the scores given by the website Hofstede Insights.

Aim

1) To investigate whether 14 dynamics of healthy relationship and PERMA predict family protective factors.
2) To test the indirect pathways between 14 dynamics of healthy relationship and family protective factors through PERMA.
3) To study the effect of individualistic, collectivistic and intermediate culture on the variables of the study viz., 14 dynamics of healthy relationship, family protective factors and PERMA.

Hypotheses

H1: The 14 dynamics of healthy relationship and PERMA will significantly predict the family protective factors.

H2: PERMA will significantly mediate the relationship between 14 dynamics of healthy relationship and family protective factors.

H3: The three groups will differ significantly on the measures of 14 dynamics of healthy relationship, family protective factors and PERMA.

Sample

The sample of the study will consist of 225 parents, with 75 of them belonging to an individualistic culture-oriented country, the other 75 represents a country with mix-culture approach and the remaining 75 will be representatives of collectivistic culture-oriented country.

The subjects in the sample will be selected on the basis of following criteria of inclusion and exclusion:

- Criteria of inclusion
    i. Both female and male parents within the age group of 30-45 years.
    ii. Individuals with at least one romantic partner from last 1 year.
    iii. Individuals with at least one child from current partner.
    iv. Individuals who are born and brought up in the respective culture that they belong to.
- Criteria of exclusion
    i. Individuals suffering from chronic physical ailment, handicapped or mental illness.
    ii. Individuals who are not native to a particular culture.
    iii. Individuals without any romantic partner from past 1 year or more.
    iv. Individuals without a child with their current partner
    v. Individuals with same sex partners.
    vi. Individuals with child through IVF.

The purposive technique of sampling will be used for selecting the sample. In this type of sampling the researcher uses planned efforts and judgements to obtain representative sample, in a way that the desired group criteria are met. As it allows to pick the cases which justify the research needs of the examiner it becomes more convenient and time saving method of sampling.

Research Design

As an empirical examination of above-mentioned hypotheses of the study, causal research design will be used to investigate whether the 14 dynamics of healthy relationship and family protective factors would directly predict PERMA and if so, to test the indirect pathways between 14 dynamics of healthy relationship and family protective factors.

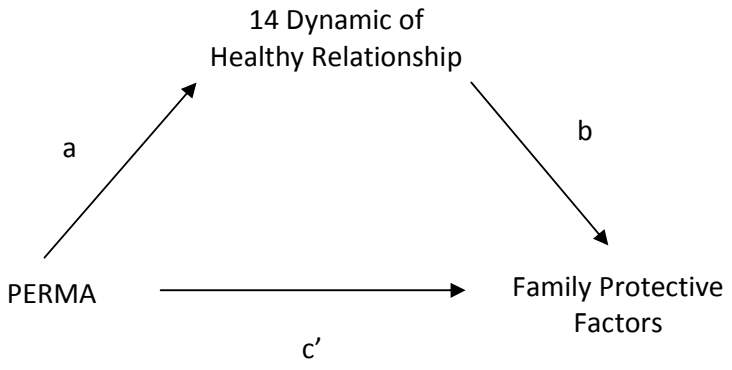


**Fig 3.1 Diagram showing the design of the study**

Measures

For the purpose of data collection following tools will be used in the study:

a) **PERMA- The PERMA Profiler (Butler, J. & Kern, M.L., 2015)**

In order to evaluate the well-being of an individual the PERMA model will be undertaken as a part of this study. Ideally, the PERMA profiler measures 9 dimensions of well-being and consists of 23 items. However, as we are interested in measuring the five crucial factors that centralize the Seligman's PERMA model i.e., positive emotions, engagement, relationship, meaning of life and accomplishments the 15-item (3 items per dimension) PERMA profiler will be used as the data collection tool. It follows a 11-point Likert scale pattern, with varying response categories. To interpret the scores of each dimension the average will be taken under consideration. Below given table 3.2 specifies the dimensions and the respective items.

Table 3.2. The five dimensions of the PERMA model along with the number of items:

| DIMENSION MODEL | RESPECTIVE ITEMS |
|---|---|
| POSITIVE EMOTION | 3, 13, 22 |
| ENGAGEMENT | 2, 10, 17 |
| RELATIONSHIPS | 8, 19, 21 |
| MEANING | 7, 9, 20 |
| ACCOMPLISHMENT | 1, 5, 15 |

b) **Family Protective Factors- Parent's Assessment of Protective Factors (Kiplinger, V.L. & Browne, C.H., 2014)**

To measure the family protective factors PAPF will be put to use. It consists of 36 items with 9 items for each scale viz., parental resilience, social connections, concrete support in times of need and social and emotional competence of children. The subjects here are supposed to rate on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "1- This

is NOT AT ALL LIKE me or what I believe to 5- This is VERY MUCH LIKE me or what I believe."

However, other than these 36 items the subject will also fill a background information form, which is the part of the tool and aids in gathering basic information pertaining to the parent and the youngest child in the family. The intercorrelation between the subscales of the tools is presented in the table 3.3.

Table 3.3. Intercorrelations between the subscale of family protective factors:

| | PR | SC | SE | CS |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **PR** | .82 | | | |
| **SC** | .65 | .80 | | |
| **SE** | .88 | .63 | .80 | |
| **CS** | .82 | .72 | .73 | .72 |

**c) 14 Dynamics of Healthy Relationship- The Relationship Rating Form: A Measure of the Characteristics of Relationships and Friendships (Davis, K.E., 1986)**

To measure the 14 dynamics of healthy relationship the 13 facets out of 20 will be picked from the relationship rating form, depending on the definition of the dynamics and the items under a domain. As a result of this a list of 43 items has been curated from a pool of 68. Table 3.4 shows the dynamic of a healthy relationship along with its subsequent facet and psychometric properties.

Table 3.4 Showing the individual dynamic of healthy relationship and its respective scale:

| 14 Dynamics of Relationship | The Subsequent Relationship Scale from RRF | No. of Items | Reliability |
|---|---|---|---|
| Uniqueness | Exclusiveness | 4 | (.71; .65; tt = .77) |
| Integration | Assistance | 4 | (.76; .78; tt = .75) |
| Trajectory | Acceptance | 4 | (.61; .50; tt = .69) |
| Evaluation | Ambivalence | 3 | (.70; .71; tt = .65) |
| Responsiveness | Esteem | 2 | (.90; .86; tt = .60) |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Resolution | Understanding | 4 | (.57; .64; tt = .75) |
| Maintenance | Maintenance | 3 | (.71; .68; tt = .80) |
| Predisposition | Coercion | 2 | (.85; .91; tt = .60) |
| Instrumentality | Giving the Utmost | 4 | (.79; .78; tt = .79) |
| Standards | Success | 3 | (.83; .87; tt = .66) |
| Diagnosticity | Reciprocity | 3 | (.77; 84; tt = .74) |
| Alternatives | Commitment | 4 | (NA; .89; .89; tt = .81) |
| Stress | Championing | 3 | (.82; .80; tt = .60) |
| **13** | 13 | 43 | - |

These 43 items will be measured on a 7-point Likert scale with the responses ranging from "Not at all" to "Completely." The higher the score of an individual on a particular facet the more dominating role it plays in the relationship.

Procedure

The sample will be collected on the basis of inclusion and exclusion criterion of the study. For the purpose of the study 225 participants will be administered PERMA- Profile questionnaire, Parent's Assessment of Protective Factors Questionnaire and The Relationship Rating Form. The 225 participants represent three varying levels of degree of interdependence that their respective society maintains among its membersviz., collectivism (75 Singaporeans), intermediate (75 Indians) and individualism (75 Australians). The data will be collectedthrough both online (google forms) and offline (paper-pencil test) sources. For the purpose of the study the statistical analyses will be conducted on the data collected and further the trend was evaluated.

Statistical Analysis

For the purpose of the study following statistical analyses will be performed on the raw scores that will be collected:

- ANOVA
- Correlation analysis

- Regression analysis
- Mediation analysis- For mediational analysis, steps for testing of mediation as described by Baron & Kenny (1986) are going to be followed.

  SPSS version 20 was employed to conduct all the statistical analysis will be used in hypotheses testing.

# CHAPTER- IV

# REFERENCES

# CHAPTER-IV

## REFERENCES


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# CHAPTER- IV

# APPENDECES

CHAPTER-1V

APPENDECES

Appendix-1

## Parents' Assessment of Protective Factors

The Parents' Assessment of Protective Factors (PAPF) is a list of 36 statements that describe you as a parent or caregiver. Some of the statements will describe you very well. Other statements will not describe you at all.

Before showing you these 36 statements, the survey begins with 10 important questions about yourself and the youngest child in your care.

This survey should take only a few minutes to complete.

***You are encouraged to respond to every statement.***

Appendix- II

## Background Information

Before you take the survey, we need some important information from you.
Please fill in all the blanks and circles that best describe you. Please print legibly. Fill in only one circle for each statement like this: •

1. Today's Date: _____ _____ _____ (For e*xample, November 3, 2014 would be printed11 03 2014 )*

   Month Day Year

2. Your City of Residence: _____
3. Your State of Residence: _____
4. Child's Age (age of the youngest child in your care): OBirth-2 yrs. old O3-5 yrs.
   O9+ yrs. old O6-8 yrs. old
5. Child's Gender (gender of the youngest child in your care): OMale OFemale
6. Your Gender: OMale OFemale
7. Your Age: O13-19 yrs. old O20-29 yrs. old O30-39 yrs. old O40-49 yrs. old
   O50-59 yrs. old O60-69 yrs. old O70-79 yrs. old O80+ yrs. old
8. Your Racial/Ethnic Identification (select only ONE):

| | |
|---|---|
| OBiracial or Multiracial | OHispanic or Latino |
| OAfrican American or Black | OMiddle Eastern |
| OAsian or Asian American | ONative American or Alaskan Native |
| OCaribbean Islander or African National | ONative Hawaiian or Pacific Islander |
| OCaucasian, White, or European American | OOther (please specify): _____ |

9. Your HIGHEST Education level COMPLETED (select only ONE):

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| ONo formal education | OHigh school | O2 year college with Associate's degree |
| OElementary school | OGED | O4 year collect with Bachelor's degree |
| OMiddle school/junior high | OTrade/Technical school | OPost graduate degree |

10. Your Main Language: OEnglish OSpanish OOther (please specify): _____

Appendix-III

**DIRECTIONS: There are 4 groups of statements in this survey. In responding to each** statement, focus on the youngest child in your care who is between birth and 8-years-old. In responding to the statements, please keep 3 points in mind:
1. You should respond truthfully to each statement. There are no right or wrong answers – only your opinions.
2. Some statements may seem like others, but no two statements are exactly the same.
3. You are encouraged to respond to every statement.
Read each statement and fill in the circle that best describes you during the last couple of months. Fill in only one circle for each statement like this: •

| S.no. | Items | This is NOT AT ALL LIKE me or what I believe | This is NOT MUCH LIKE me or what I believe | This is A LITTLE LIKE me or what I believe | This is LIKE me or what I believe | This is VERY MUCH LIKE me or what I believe |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | I feel positive about being a parent/caregiver. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 2 | I take good care of my child even when I am sad. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 3 | I find ways to handle problems related to my child. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 4 | I take good care of my child even when I have personal problems. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 5 | I manage the daily responsibilities of being a parent/caregiver. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 6 | I have the strength within myself to solve problems that happen in my life. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 7 | I am confident I can achieve my goals. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 8 | I take care of my daily responsibilities even if problems make me sad. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 9 | I believe that my life will get better even when bad things happen. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 10 | I have someone who will help me get through tough times. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 11 | I have someone who helps me calm down when I get upset. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 12 | I have someone who can help me calm | O | O | O | O | O |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | down if I get frustrated with my child. | | | | | |
| 13 | I have someone who will encourage me when I need it. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 14 | I have someone I can ask for help when I need it. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 15 | I have someone who will tell me in a caring way if I need to be a better parent/caregiver. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 16 | I have someone who helps me feel good about myself. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 17 | I am willing to ask for help from my family. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 18 | I have someone to talk to about important things. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 19 | I don't give up when I run into problems trying to get the services I need. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 20 | I make an effort to learn about the resources in my community that might be helpful for me. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 21 | When I cannot get help right away, I don't give up until I get the help I need. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 22 | I know where to go if my child needs help. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 23 | I am willing to ask for help from community programs or agencies. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 24 | I know where I can get helpful information. about parenting and taking care of children. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 25 | Asking for help for my child is easy for me to do. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 26 | I know where to get help if I have trouble taking care of emergencies. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 27 | I try to get help for myself when I need it. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 28 | I maintain self-control when my child misbehaves | O | O | O | O | O |
| 29 | I help my child learn to | O | O | O | O | O |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | manage frustration. | | | | | |
| 30 | I stay patient when my child cries. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 31 | I play with my child when we are together. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 32 | I can control myself when I get angry with my child. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 33 | I make sure my child gets the attention he or she needs even when my life is stressful. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 34 | I stay calm when my child misbehaves. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 35 | I help my child calm down when he or she is upset. | O | O | O | O | O |
| 36 | I am happy when I am with my child. | O | O | O | O | O |

Appendix-IV

**INSTRUCTIONS:** "Below you will find questions about your relationship with your friend, partner, lover or spouse. To answer the questions, write the number between 1 and 9 that best reflects your feelings about your relationship with this person. Use the following key to the meaning of the numbers: "1 = Not at all; 2 = very little; 3 = Slightly (or rarely); 4 = a fair amount; 5 = a great deal; 6 = strongly (almost always), and 7 = Completely or extremely."

| S.no. | Items | Not at all | Very Little | Rarely | A Fair Amount | A Great Deal | Almost Always | Comp-letely |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 1. | Do you accept this person as s/he is? | | | | | | | |
| 2. | Are you willing to ignore this person's small sins because of the way you feel about her/him? | | | | | | | |
| 3. | Is it easy for you to forgive this person? | | | | | | | |
| 4. | Does this person disappoint you? | | | | | | | |
| 5. | Do you trust this person? | | | | | | | |
| 6. | Can you count on this person in times of need? | | | | | | | |
| 7. | Does this person ever forget your welfare? | | | | | | | |
| 8. | Does this person use things against you that s/he shouldn't? | | | | | | | |
| 9. | Do you know what kind of person s/he is? | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10. | Is this person's behavior surprising or puzzling to you? | | | | | | | |
| 11. | Do you know this person's faults and shortcomings? | | | | | | | |
| 12. | Do you know about this person's past? | | | | | | | |
| 13. | Can you count of this person to lend you a substantial sum of money? | | | | | | | |
| 14. | Can you count on this person to risk personal safety to help you if you were in danger? | | | | | | | |
| 15. | Can you count of this person to give the utmost on your behalf? | | | | | | | |
| 16. | Are you prepared to make a significant sacrifice on this person's behalf? | | | | | | | |
| 17. | Can you count on this person to let you know how others feel about you? | | | | | | | |
| 18. | Can you count on this person to support you in an argument or dispute with others? | | | | | | | |
| 19. | Can you count on this person to champion your interests where there is a conflict between your interests and those of others? | | | | | | | |
| 20. | Can you count on this person to come to your aid when you need help? | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 21. | Can this person count on you for help when s/he is in need? | | | | | | | |
| 22. | Can you count on this person to tell you what s/he really thinks about issues regardless of whether he or she agrees with you? | | | | | | | |
| 23. | Do you tell this person exactly what you think about important issues regardless of whether he or she agrees with you? | | | | | | | |
| 24. | Are you happy in your relationship with this person? | | | | | | | |
| 25. | Has your relationship with this person satisfied your needs? | | | | | | | |
| 26. | Has your relationship with this person been a success? | | | | | | | |
| 27. | Does your partner share the same feeling for you that you have for him/her? | | | | | | | |
| 28. | Does this person really care about you as a person? | | | | | | | |
| 29. | Do you feel that your partner cares for you as much as you care for him/her? | | | | | | | |
| 30. | Does your partner make you feel worthwhile and special? | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 31. | Does your partner make you feel proud of yourself? | | | | | | | |
| 32. | Are you confused or unsure of your feelings toward this person? | | | | | | | |
| 33. | Do you feel that this person demands too much of your time? | | | | | | | |
| 34. | Do you feel trapped in this relationship? | | | | | | | |
| 35. | Do you talk with this person about your relationship? | | | | | | | |
| 36. | Do you and this person try to work out difficulties that occur between you? | | | | | | | |
| 37. | Are you trying to change things that you do to make the relationship better between the two of you? | | | | | | | |
| 38. | Are you committed to staying in your relationship? | | | | | | | |
| 39. | Does this person measure up to your ideals for a life partner? | | | | | | | |
| 40. | How likely is it that your relationship will be permanent? | | | | | | | |
| 41. | How committed is your partner to this relationship? | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 42. | Has your partner ever forced you to do something that you did not want to do? | | | | | | | |
| 43. | Have you ever forced your partner to do something that s/he did not want to do? | | | | | | | |

Appendix- V

**Instructions:** Please read each of the following questions and then select the point on the scale that you feel best describes you.

**All questions must be completed for this questionnaire to be scored.**

| S.no. | Items | Never<br><br>0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Always<br><br>10 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | How much of the time do you feel you are making progress towards accomplishing your goals? | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. | How often do you become absorbed in what you are doing? | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. | In general, how often do you feel joyful? | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. | How often do you achieve the important goals you have set for yourself? | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **S.no.** | **Items** | **Not at all**<br><br>**0** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | **6** | **7** | **8** | **9** | **Completely**<br><br>**10** |
| 5. | In general, to what extent do you lead a purposeful and meaningful life? | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. | To what extent do you receive help and support from others when you need it? | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. | In general, to what extent do you feel that what you do in your life is valuable and worthwhile? | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8. | In general, to what extent do you feel excited and interested in things? | | | | | | | | | | | |

| S.no. | Items | Never<br><br>0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Always<br><br>10 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9. | In general, how often do you feel positive? | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 10. | How often are you able to handle your responsibilities? | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 11. | How often do you lose track of time while doing something you enjoy? | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **S.no.** | **Items** | **Not at all**<br><br>**0** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | **6** | **7** | **8** | **9** | **Completely**<br><br>**10** |
| 12. | To what extent do you feel loved? | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 13. | To what extent do you generally feel you have a sense of direction in your life? | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 14. | How satisfied are you with your personal relationships? | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 15. | In general, to what extent do you feel contented? | | | | | | | | | | | |